With regard to the weather, which of course was a very important element, the sky was perfectly clear, and altogether suitable for the purpose of observation. There was a light south-east wind blowing, and this prevented the definition being so steady as might have been wished. We are "officially" assured, however, that on the whole the observations made at the Cape of Good Hope may be regarded as perfectly satisfactory, and that they will add considerably towards the solution of the problem of the sun's exact distance from the earth. We have already intimated that at the suggestion of Dr. Gill, other stations than that of the Observatory had been selected. At Aberdeen Road, Mr. Finlay (of comet fame), the first Assistant at the Cape Observatory, and Mr. Pette, third Assistant, were provided with an equatorial of six inches aperture, and the report received last evening by telegraph, was that complete success had attended their labours. Mr. Marth, the well-known astronomer, was detailed at Montagu Road in charge of one of the British Transit of Venus Expeditions, and was provided with a 6-inch aperture equatorial, his assistant, Mr. Stephen, formerly of the Observatory, and now of the Treasury Department, Cape Town, being provided with a $4\frac{1}{2}$-inch equatorial. In his report last evening, Mr. Marth states that the sky was cloudless, but a heavy dust-storm prevailed during the day. He reported, however, that the important internal contact was observed satisfactorily both by himself and Mr. Stephen. A report from Capt. Skead, in conjunction with Mr. Spindler, of Port Elizabeth, states that they also obtained satisfactory observations.

We fear that the courtesy of the General Manager of Telegraphs, Mr. Sivewright, must have been sorely tested by the frequent demand upon his staff for signals for the purpose of determining longitudes, &c. The telegraphic department, we ought to state, has given the utmost facilities in connection with these operations, and thanks to the co-operation of the General Manager, everything connected with his department was accomplished without a hitch. The transit of Venus expedition will indeed be indebted to Mr. Sivewright for his energy and devotion in their interests. This additional work has necessarily fallen heavily upon the shoulders of the staff at the Observatory. Not only has the normal work of that establishment been carried on as diligently as heretofore, but there has been the additional task of taking observations of the great comet, which with other things has told severely upon the endurance of Dr. Gill and his assistants. Judging, though, from what we saw there yesterday, there is no sign of anyone breaking down under the strain of extra work.

The signals for time comparison were sent to the observers engaged in the transit about nine o'clock on Tuesday evening The night is described as having been beautifully clear, aud the occultation of the bright star Spica Virginus was observed in the early morning. Signals were also sent to Mr. Eddie, Graham's Town.

We have thus far briefly sketched the manner in which the observations were taken yesterday—excepting the somewhat primitive method of smoked glass adopted by a good many of the general public, to whom the transit of Venus was not quite such a matter of exquisite nicety as to such gentlemen as those to whom we have just alluded. From a non-astronomic point of view there was even with the aid of the proper instruments, only to be seen a dark spot crossing the sun, resembling very much a Wimbledon bull's eye. Roughly speaking, the planet made its external contact at five minutes past three o'clock, when through a proper instrument it might have been seen minutely notching into the sun's edge. At twenty-five minutes past the hour—still roughly speaking, for when the calculations are worked out there might be a fractional part of a second one way or the other—the internal contact occurred.

The sun set long before the transit had been completed. It consequently fell to the lot of other astronomers to observe its egress, which of course was as eagerly watched for as had been that of the ingress. The ingress, it might be interesting to mention, was visible in North and South America ; Europe, excepting the west of Russia and the north of Norway and Sweden ; the whole of Africa, Madagascar, Seychelles, and the Mauritius. The egress was visible in North and South America, Australia, New Zealand, and nearly the whole of the South Pacific. This egress will have been completed by about eight o'clock this morning, and then all interested in the subject of Venus may look forward to another 122 years before the interesting occurrence again takes place.

ELECTRIC RAILWAYS[1]

We have grown so accustomed to the regular announcement—"serious—accident on such and such a railway, several passengers injured" that we have almost come to regard railway accidents as inevitable, just as parents mistakingly think the measles and whooping cough necessary accompaniments of childhood. But speed no more means disaster than a densely crowded city means disease. The first effect of overcrowding is undoubtedly to produce fever and other complaints. If, however, the knowledge and practice of the laws of hygiene increase more rapidly than the population of a town, the death-rate, as we have seen, diminishes, instead of augmenting. And so it is with locomotion ; the stage-coach journeys of our ancestors were slow enough for the most staunch conservative, and yet the percentage of the passengers injured on their journeys was far greater than even now with our harum-scarum railway travelling. The number of passengers has increased enormously, but the safety has increased in an even greater rate. If then we can devise methods introducing still greater security, a far larger number of passengers may travel at a far greater speed and with less fear of danger than at present.

Accidents constitute one charge against railway conveyance, but there is another, and that is the cost. Cheap as railway travelling now is, compared with the departed stage-coach locomotion, the price of the tickets is still far too high for railways to fulfil, even in a small degree, one of their most important functions, and that is transporting labourers from parts of the country where labour is scarce, to others where it is abundant and labourers in demand.

But how is a happier state of things to be realised? We cannot expect the railway companies to lower their fares merely to benefit humanity. If, however, we can prove to them that the present system of railways is neither the most remunerative to themselves nor the most beneficial to the community at large, we may hope to win the attention of railway directors, whose stock question is, and quite rightly, "Will it pay?"

Those of you who have read the life of Stephenson know what a protracted fight he had to carry one of his most cherished ideas, and that was the employment of a locomotive engine to draw the train, instead of a stationary engine to pull it with ropes or chains. His adversaries saw the disadvantage of adding the weight of the locomotive to the weight of the train, whereas Stephenson was especially struck with the enormous waste of power in the friction of ropes or chains passing over pulleys. [Experiments were then shown proving, *first*, that the mass of the locomotive necessitated the engine having a greater horse-power to get up the speed of the train quickly as well as a greater horse-power to keep up the speed; *secondly*, that the friction and wear and tear of ropes, such as were employed on the London and Blackwall Railway, would have been an insuperable hindrance to the development of railways.] From this was deduced that, since in Stephenson's day the only feasible mode of communicating the power of a stationary engine to a moving train was by means of ropes, his decision to adopt the locomotive was perfectly correct at the time it was made.

Attempts have been made to propel trains by blowing them through tubes, or by blowing a piston attached to the train through a tube, but such attempts at pneumatic railways have nearly all been abandoned. The employment of air compressed into a receiver on the train by fixed pumping engines stationed at various points along the line, and employed to work compressed air engines on the carriages has been effected with considerable success by Col. Beaumont, especially for tram-lines. The weight of the compressed air-engine is, however, still very considerable. Any system of pumping water through a pipe and employing the water to work a hydraulic engine on the train is hardly worth considering, seeing that the mechanical difficulties of keeping up a continuous connection between the moving train and the main through which the water is pumped seem insuperable. Gas-engines worked with ordinary coal-gas, stored perhaps under pressure, might be employed on the moving train, but the advantage arising from the absence of boiler and coal would be more than compensated for by the fact, that the weight of a gas-engine per horse-power developed is so much greater than that of a steam-engine. None of these systems, then, of dispensing with a locomotive is by any means perfect, and the success of the recent experiments on the electric transmission of

[1] Abstract of a lecture at the Royal Institution by Prof. W. E. Ayrton, F.R.S.

power has turned the attention of engineers to the consideration, whether electricity could not successfully supplant steam for the propulsion of trains and tram-cars; whether it could not, in fact, supply an efficient means of transmitting power, the absence of which caused Stephenson to abandon ropes in favour of a heavy locomotive engine.

The whole question, like every similar one, is mainly a question of expense; and what we have to consider is, whether electric transmission on the whole leads to greater economy than can possibly be obtained by the employment of any kind of locomotive. The average weight of a locomotive is about that of six carriages full of people; ten carriages compose an ordinary train, hence the presence of the mass of the locomotive adds at least 50 per cent. to the horse-power absolutely necessary to propel the carriages alone, and therefore at least 50 per cent to the amount of coal burned. But there is another most serious objection to the engines, perhaps even more important than the preceding. The heavy engine passing over every part of the line necessitates the whole line and all the bridges being made many times as strong, and therefore many times as costly, and the expense of maintenance consequently also far greater, than if there were no locomotive. And it is not possible to make the engine much lighter; for it would not have then sufficient adhesion with the rails to be able to draw the train; in fact, you cannot diminish the weight as long as the train is propelled with only one or two pair of driving wheels as at present. The employment of electricity, however, will enable a train to be driven with every pair of wheels, just as the employment of compressed air enables every pair of wheels to brake the train.

To propel a train, we must either utilise the energy of coal by burning it, or use the energy possessed by a mountain stream, or the energy stored up in chemicals, and which is given out when the chemicals are allowed to combine, or we must employ the energy of the wind. Practically we employ at present only the first store for propelling railway trains—the potential energy of coal; and that is to a great extent the store on which we shall still draw, even when we employ electric railways. For experience shows that, with the modern steam-engine and dynamo, at least one-twentieth of the energy in coal can be converted into electric energy; and that this is at least twenty times as economical as the direct conversion of the energy of zinc into electric energy by burning it in a galvanic battery.

But it may be asked, did not Faraday's discovery, in 1831, that a current could be produced by the relative motion of a magnet and a coil of wire, settle this point half a century ago? Theoretically—yes; practically, however, the problem was very far from being solved, because the dynamo machine was very unsatisfactory, and it was not until Pacinotti, in 1860, suggested the solution of the problem of obtaining a practically continuous current from a number of intermittent currents, and until Gramme, about 1870, carried out Pacinotti's suggestion in the actual construction of large working machines, that the mechanical production of currents became commercially possible. [Experiments were then shown illustrating the complete electric transmission of power, a gas-engine on the platform giving rapid motion to a magneto-electric machine, and the current thereby produced sent through an electro-motor at the other end of the room, which worked an ordinary lathe.]

In electric transmission of power there is not only waste of power from mechanical friction, but also from electric friction arising from the electric current heating the wire, through which it passes.

It was then explained and demonstrated experimentally that this latter waste could be made extremely small by placing so light a load on the electro-motor, that it ran nearly as fast as the generator or dynamo, which converted the mechanical energy into electric energy; actual experiments leading to the result that for every foot-pound of work done by the steam-engine on the generator, quite seven-tenths of a foot-pound of work can be done by the distant motor.

One reason why electric transmission of power can be effected with so little waste is because electricity has apparently no mass, and consequently no inertia; there is, therefore, no waste of power in making it go round a corner, as there is with water or with any kind of material fluid. Another reason why electro-motors are so valuable for travelling machinery is on account of the light weight of the motor. Experiment shows that one horse-power can be developed with 56 lbs. of dead weight of electro-motor, and that for large electro-motors of several horse-power the weight per horse is even much less; a result immensely more favourable than can be obtained with steam, gas, or compressed-air-engines.

In addition to the loss of power arising from the heating of the wires by the passage of the current, there is another kind of loss that may be most serious in the case of a long electric railway, viz., that arising from actual leakage of the electricity due to defective insulation. To send an electric current through a distant motor, two wires, a "going" and "return" wire mnst be employed, insulated from one another by silk, guttapercha, or some insulating substance; and if the motor be on a moving train, there must be some means of keeping up continuous connection between the two ends of the moving electro-motor and the going and return wire. The simplest plan is to use the two rails as the two wires, and make connection with the motor through the wheels of the train; those on one side being well insulated from those of the other, otherwise the current would pass through the axles of the wheels, instead of through the motor. It is this simple plan that is employed in Siemens' Lichterfelde Electric Railway, now running at Berlin; the insulation arising from the rails being merely laid on wooden sleepers having been found sufficient for the short length, 1½ mile. The car is similar to an ordinary tram-car, and holds twenty passengers. [Photographs were then projected on the screen of this and of the original electric railway laid by Siemens in the grounds of the Berlin Exhibition of 1879, and exhibited in 1881 at the Crystal Palace, Sydenham.] It was explained that on this latter railway, which was 900 yards long, both the ordinary rails were used as the return wire, and that the going wire was a third insnlated rail rubbed by the passing train. [Photographs were then projected on the screen of Siemens' electric tram-car at Paris, used to carry fifty passengers backwards and forwards last year to the Electrical Exhibition.] In this the going and return wires were overhead and insulated, connection being maintained between them and the moving car by two light wires attached to the car, and which pulled along two little carriages running on the overhead insulated wires, and making electric contact with them. [Experiments followed, proving that although two bare wires lying on the ground could be quite efficiently employed as the going and return wire, if the wires were short and the ground dry, the leakage that occurred if the wires were long and the ground moist was so great, as to more than compensate for the absence of the locomotive.] Consequently Prof. Perry and myself have for some time past been working out practical means for overcoming these difficulties, and we have arrived at what we hope is an extremely satisfactory solution. Instead of supplying electricity to one very long, not very well insulated rail, we lay by the side of our railway line a well insulated cable, which conveys the main current. The rail, which is rubbed by the moving train, and which supplies it with electric energy, we subdivide into a number of sections, each fairly well insulated from its neighbour and from the ground; and we arrange that at any moment only that section or sections, which is in the immediate neighbourhood of the train, is connected with the main cable; the connection being of course made automatically by the moving train. As then leakage to the earth of the strong propelling electric current can only take place from that section or sections of the rail, which is in the immediate neighbourhood of the train, the loss of power by leakage is very much less than in the case of a single imperfectly insulated rail such as has been hitherto employed, and which being of great length, with its correspondingly large number of points of support, would offer endless points of escape to the motive current.

Dr. Siemens has experimentally demonstrated that an electric railway can be used for a mile or two; Prof. Perry and myself, by keeping in mind the two essentials of success, viz. attention to both the mechanical and electrical details, have, we venture to think, devised means for reducing the leakage on the longest railway to less than what it would be on the shortest.

For the purpose of automatically making connection between the main well-insulated cable and the rubbed rail in the neighbourhood of the moving train we have devised various means, one of which is seen from the following figures.

A B (Fig. 1) is a copper or other metallic rod resting on the top of and fastened to a corrugated tempered steel disc D D (of the nature of, but of course immensely stronger than the corrugated top of the vacuum box of an aneroid barometer), and which is carried by and fastened to a thick ring E E made of ebonite or other insulating material. The ebonite ring is itself screwed to the circular cast-iron box, which latter is fastened to

the ordinary railway sleepers. The auxiliary rail A B and the corrugated steel discs D D have sufficient flexibility that two or more of the latter are simultaneously depressed by an insulating collecting brush or roller carried by one or by all of the carriages. Depressing any of the corrugated steel discs brings the stud F, which is electrically connected with the rod A B, into contact with the stud G electrically connected with the well-insulated cable.

As only a short piece of the auxiliary rail A B is at any moment in connection with the main cable, the insulation of the ebonite ring E E will be sufficient even in wet weather, and the cast-iron box is sufficiently high that the flooding of the line or the deposit of snow does not affect the insulation. The insulation, however, of G, which is permanently in connection with the main cable, must be far better. For this purpose we lead the gutta-percha, or india-rubber, covered wire coming from the main cable through the centre of a specially formed telegraph insulator, and cause it to adhere to the inside of the earthenware tube forming the stalk. And as, in addition, the inside of each contact box is dry, a very perfect insulation is maintained for the lead coming from the main cable. Consequently as all leakage is eliminated except in the immediate neighbourhood of the train, this system can be employed for the very longest electric railways. Fig. 2 shows a modification of the contact box when the insulated rail L, instead of extending all along the line, is quite short and is carried by the train, and by its motion presses forwards and downwards a metallic fork on the contact-box, thus making contact between F and G. [Other diagrams were explained, illustrating modifications of the contact-boxes; in one case the well-insulated cable is carried inside the flexible rail, which then takes the form of a tube, shown in Fig. 3; in another case the cable is insulated with paraffin oil instead of with gutta-percha or india-rubber, shown in Fig. 4, &c.]

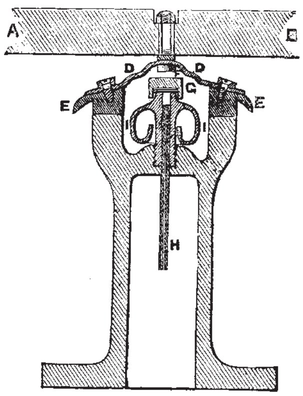

FIG. 1.

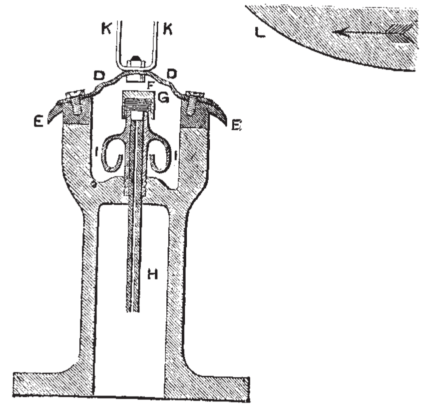

FIG. 2.

The existence of these contact-boxes at every 20 to 50 feet also enables the train to graphically record its position at any moment on a map hanging up at the terminus, or in a signal-box or elsewhere, by a shadow which creeps along the map of the line as the train advances, stops when the train stops, and backs when the train backs. This is effected thus:—As the train passes along, not only is the main contact between F and G automatically made, as already described, but an auxiliary contact is also completed by the depression of the lid of the contact-box, and which has the effect of putting, at each contact-box in succession, an earth fault on an insulated thin auxiliary wire running by the side of the line. And just as the position of an earth fault can be accurately determined by electrical testing at the end of the line, so we arrange that the moving position of the earth fault, that is the position of the train itself, is automatically recorded by the pointer of a galvanometer moving behind a screen or map, in which is cut out a slit representing by its shape and length the section of the line on which the train is, as shown in Fig. 5. In addition, then, to the small sections of 20 feet or more into which our auxiliary rubbed rail is electrically divided, there would be certain long blocked sections one mile or several miles in length, for each of which on the map a separate galvanometer and pointer would be provided. [Experiments were shown of the system of graphically automatically recording the progress of a train.]

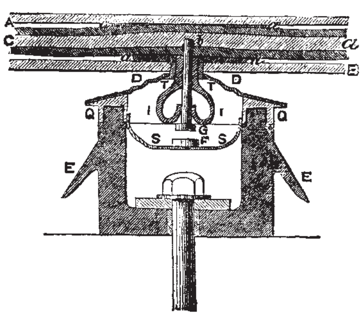

FIG. 3.

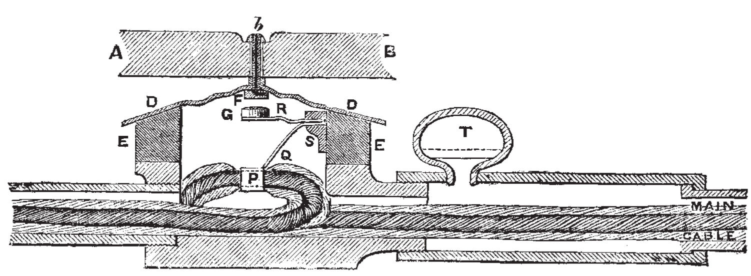

FIG. 4.

In the preceding systems there are several contact-boxes in each section of the insulated rubbed rail, and several sections of the insulated rail in each section of the line blocked, but in the next system the rubbed rail is simply divided electrically into long sections each of as great a length as the particular system employed to insulate the rubbed rail will allow. In this case we arrange that the electric connection between the main cable and the rubbed conductor shall be automatically made by the train as it enters a section, and automatically broken as the train leaves a section. The model before you is divided into four sections, each about 11 feet in length, and you see from the current detectors that as the train runs either way, it puts current into the section just entered, and takes off current from the section just left.

[Experiments were then shown of the ease with which an electric train could be made to back instead of going forwards, by reversing the connections between the revolving armatures and the fixed electro-magnets of the motor; also that the accidental reversal of the field magnets of the main stationary generator, although it had the effect of reversing the main current, produced no change in the direction of motion of an electric engine, the direction of motion being solely under the control of the driver.]

But more than this, not only does the train take off current from the section 1 when it is just leaving it, and entering section 2, but no following train entering section 1 can receive current or motive power until the preceding train has entered section 3. [Experiments were then shown proving that with this system a following train could not possibly run into a preceding train even if the preceding train stopped or backed.] Now why does the following train when it runs on to a blocked section pull up so quickly? The reason is because it is not only deprived of all motive power, but is powerfully braked, since when electricity is cut off from a section, the insulated and non-insulated rail of that section are automatically connected together, so that when the train runs on to a blocked section the electromotor becomes a generator short circuited on itself, producing, therefore, a powerful current which rapidly pulls up the engine. [Experiments were then shown of the speed with which an electromotor, which had been set in rapid rotation and then deprived of its motive current, pulled up when its two terminals were short-circuited.]

Whenever, then, a train, it may be even a runaway engine, enters on a blocked section, not only is all motive power withdrawn from it, but it is automatically powerfully braked, quite independently of the action of the engine-driver, guard, or signalman. No fog, nor colour-blindness, nor different codes of signals on different lines, nor mistakes arising from the exhausted nervous condition of overworked signal-men, can with this system

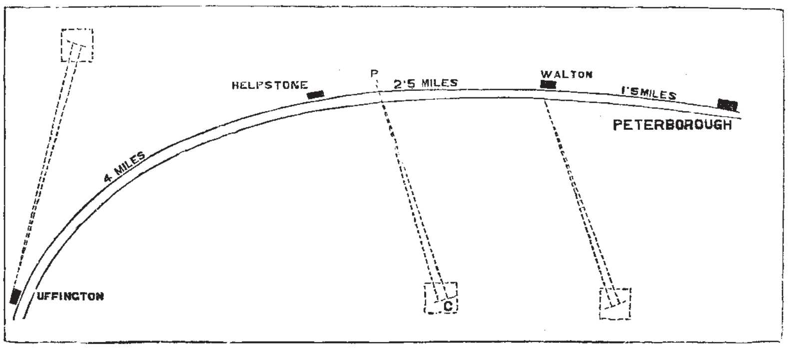

Fig. 5.

produce a collision. The English system of blocking is merely giving an order to stop a train; but whether this is understood or intelligently carried out is only settled by the happening or non-happening of a subsequent collision. Our Absolute Automatic Block acts as if the steam were automatically shut off and the brake put on whenever the train is running into danger; nay, it does more than this—it acts as if the fires were put out and all the coal taken away, since it is quite out of the power of the engine-driver to re-start his train until the one in front is at a safe distance ahead.

But all trains will undoubtedly be lighted with electricity; must, then, the train be plunged into darkness when it runs on to a blocked section to which no electric energy is being supplied? No! If some of the electric energy supplied to a train when it is on an unblocked section be stored up in Faure's accumulators, such as are at present used on the Brighton Pulman train, the lamps will continue burning even when the train has ceased to receive electric energy from the rubbed rail.

When, then, we commit the carrying of our power to that fleet messenger to which we have been accustomed to entrust the carrying of our thoughts, then shall we have railways that will combine speed, economy and safety; and last, but not least to us Londoners, we shall have the entire absence of smoke, the presence of which nearly causes the convenience of the Underground Railway to be balanced by the pernicious character of its atmosphere.

SOCIETIES AND ACADEMIES

London

Royal Society, December 21, 1882.—"On the Origin of the Hydrocarbon Flame Spectrum." By G. D. Liveing, M.A., F.R.S., Prof. of Chemistry, and J. Dewar, M.A., F.R.S., Jacksonian Prof., University of Cambridge.

In previous communications[1] to the Society we have described the spectra of what we believe to be three compound substances, viz., cyanogen, magnesium-hydrogen, and water.

In these investigations our chief aim has been to ascertain facts, and to avoid as far as possible adopting any special theory regarding the genesis of the spectra in question.

Specific spectra have been satisfactorily proved to emanate from the compound molecules of cyanogen, water, and magnesium-hydrogen, so far as we can interpret in the simplest way the many observations previously detailed. The fact that a fluted spectrum is produced under certain conditions, by a substance which does not give such a spectrum under other conditions, is of itself a proof that the body has either passed into an isomeric state or has formed some new compound; but we are not entitled to assert, without investigation, which of these two reasonable explanations of the phenomena is the true one. There is, however, a spectrum to which we have had occasion to refer in the papers on the spectra of the compounds of carbon, which closely resembles that of a compound substance, and which we, in common with some other spectroscopists, have been led to attribute to the hydrocarbon acetylene, without, however, being able to bring forward such rigid experimental proofs of its origin as we have adduced in the case of the three substances above referred to. In other words, the experimental evidence that the hydrocarbon flame spectrum is really due to a hydrocarbon was always indirect. Thus, we showed that many flames containing carbon, such as those of hydrogen mixed with bisulphide of carbon or carbonic oxide, and the flame of cyanogen in air, did not give this spectrum, and these particular flames are known, from the investigations of Berthelot, to be incapable of generating acetylene under conditions producing incomplete combustion. On the other hand, we found that a flame of hydrogen mixed with chloroform, which easily generates acetylene, gives the hydrocarbon flame spectrum in a very marked manner, and it is known that the ordinary blow-pipe flame, in which the same spectrum is well developed, contains this hydrocarbon.

These and other experiments point to the intimate relation of hydrogen and carbon in the combined form of acetylene to the production of this spectrum during combustion. In our various observations on the spectrum of the electric arc taken in different gases, the flame spectrum was always noticed, and seemed to be independent of the surrounding atmostphere. In the mode in which those experiments were conducted, it was easily shown that the carbons were never free from hydrogen, and that the gases always contained traces of aqueous vapour. Under these conditions acetylene is formed synthetically during the electric discharge, the line spectrum of hydrogen being absent; so that we were never convinced that the spectrum was not due to the former substance.

It is well to remark in passing, that our previous work on the spectrum of the carbon compounds was mainly directed to that particular spectrum which is characteristic of the flame of cyanogen, and only indirectly to the flame spectrum of hydrocarbon. We were further supported in connecting the latter

[1] "On the spectra of the Compounds of Carbon with Hydrogen and Nitrogen." I and II. *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, vol. 30, pp. 152, 494. "On the Spectrum of Carbon," *ib.*, vol. 33, p. 403. "General Observations on the Spectrum of Carbon and its Compounds," *ib.*, vol. 34, p. 123. "On the Spectrum of Water," *ib.*, vol. 30, p. 480, and vol. 33, p. 274. "Investigations on the Spectrum of Magnesium," *ib.*, vol. 32, p. 189.